MODELING AN INPUT-OUTPUT GEOKINETIC SYSTEM UTILIZING A FINITE ELEMENT APPROACH

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by

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March 1975

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Modeling an Input-Output Geokinetic System Utilizing a Finite Element Approach

by

Robert Charles Foos Captain, United States Army B.S., United States Military Academy, 1969

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN OPERATIONS RESEARCH



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ABSTRACT

The modeling research presented in this paper of an input-output geokinetic system can be applied to problems not only in earthquake research but also to problems in siloed missile systems. The finite element technique provides an effective methodology for exploring the detailed surface movements of the earth in response to ocean tidal loading. The finite element computer program utilized in this paper was especially designed for analyzing deformations and strains resulting from a system of loads applied to a structure. Relationships are explored between surface loads and fault zone tilt response as a function of fault zone shear strength, and distance of the fault from the load.

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I. INTRODUCTION

This study explores modeling a specific input-output system in the field of geokinetics. A finite element technique is utilized as the system simulator. The Earth's surface movements are the output to several geophysical phenomena. One of the most significant geophysical inputs is ocean tital loading. Finite element modeling provides an effective technique for exploring the detailed surface movements of the earth in response to ocean loading.

The first chapter of this paper discusses the bounds of the finite element model. The finite element model is contrasted with an analytical half space Boussinesq technique in order to provide the level of detail which should be included in the finite element model. Tilts resulting from two and three dimensional surface loads on the Boussinesq half space models bracket the tilt produced by the two dimensional finite element model. In the second chapter relationships are explored between surface loads and fault zone tilt response as a function of fault zone shear strength, and distance of the fault from the load. The results indicate a logarithmic relationship between the magnitude of fault zone tilt and distance of the fault from the load. The final chapter describes four profiles of the California coastline in an attempt to relate real data collected by the United States Geological Survey to model results.

It is assumed that the reader is already familiar with solving families of differential equations by finite difference techniques and their applications to geophysical sciences. Only token consideration is given in this paper to the theory of finite difference techniques and their application to finite element modeling. The reader unfamiliar with finite element methodology is encouraged to read the appendix of this paper containing the documentation of the finite element computer program. This documentation should give the reader a better perception of the finite element modeling technique. There are also several excellent references published on the subject of finite element techniques [1, 9, 15].

There are many applications of the finite element technique besides solving geophysically related systems. The pure research which is presented in this paper can be applied to problems not only in earthquake research but, for example, also in air defense missile systems [2]. Accurately predicted ground motion near siloed missiles can be programmed into the missile's prelaunch parameters of the inertial guidance system. This information results in fewer course corrections required for the missile and therefore a higher probability of hitting its target.

The finite element computer program utilized in this paper was especially designed for analyzing deformations and strains resulting from a system of loads applied to a structure. This two dimensional finite element computer program was developed at the National Center for Earthquake Research of the United

States Geological Survey by Dr. James H. Dieterich [3], Dr. M. Darroll Wood and refined by the author. The author is greatly indebted to Dr. M. Darroll Wood for his cooperation, guidance and geophysics expertise which made this paper possible. The terminology and notation used in this paper was adopted from Dr. Wood's doctorial thesis [12]. The author also expresses his appreciation to Professor Donald Barr and Professor Rex Shudde for their helpful criticism and ideas during the stages of development of this paper. The William R. Church Computer Center was a tremendous asset in the cooperation and service which it provided in processing the finite element computer programs.

II. FINITE ELEMENT MODEL CONTRASTED WITH BOUSSINESQ MODEL

In 1878, Boussinesq calculated the vertical deviation of an elastic plane surface of a homogeneous medium under the loading effect caused by water. He showed that the vertical displacement of the Earth's crust was proportional at each point to the gravitational potential of the load and was a function of the elastic constants of the medium [8]. The Boussinesq technique has long been used as a simple approximation of load tilt. Load tilt is principally the gradient of the displacement field of the Earth's surface and two other secondary effects. The principal effect and the one which the finite element model simulates is that of the variable flexure of the Earth's crust under the loading effect caused by the oceans. The other effects are the attraction of the masses of water causing a vertical displacement of the Earth's surface, and the variation of the potential due to secondary deformation of the Earth's crust, an effect which is opposite in direction to the first and second effects [8].

The finite element structure is a two dimensional model in which the load is assumed to have unit width (Fig. 1). For this reason, it is difficult to directly compare the finite element model with Boussinesq half space models. The tilts calculated from the Boussinesq technique bounded the tilt produced from the finite element model in each of six

Reason for Assumption of Unit Width of Surface Load ρ = density of water where Area = distance between nodes (length of load) multiplied by a unit depth. g = gravity EX × 19 × where Force = Pressure x Area Finite Element Structure and Load $Pressure = \rho gh$ TOND'T 370 KM FIGURE 1 WX S. cmt Equivalent Surface Node Forces of Finite Element to Actual Uniform Surface Load 20

cases processed with different loads and elastic parameters. The finite element model overestimated the tilt calculated from the equivalent Boussinesq model with a two dimensional load, and consistently underestimated the tilt calculated from the equivalent Boussinesq model with a three dimensional load. The following description is of one model processed by the finite element model and the calculations associated with the Boussinesq method.

The Boussinesq method describes load tilt δ_x^{ℓ} as the deviation of the vertical $\delta_x^a(r)$ due to a load of radial extent **r** multiplied by the Boussinesq factor m. Thus:

$$\delta_X^{\ell} = \delta_X^{a}(r) \cdot m \text{ where } m = \frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{4\pi(\lambda + \mu)\mu} \cdot \frac{g^2}{G}$$
where μ = shear modulus
 λ = modulus of rigidity (Lamé
 g = gravity Constants)
 G = gravitational constant.

The deviation of the vertical $\delta_X^a(r)$ due to a load of extent r and height h is the ratio of the horizontal gravity g_X to the vertical gravity attraction [12]. For the three dimensional Boussinesq model $\delta_X^a(r) = \frac{G \rho h}{g} \frac{d}{d x} \int \frac{d r}{r} = \frac{G \rho h}{g} \ln(r)$ where ρ = density of load (water) G = gravitational constant h = height of the load g = gravity (vertical) r = radial extent of load.

For the two dimensional Boussinesq model $\delta_x^a(r)$ is computed using a line integral. Thus, $\delta_x^a(r) = \frac{G \rho h}{g \cdot r}$ where ρ , G, h, g, r are the same as above [12].

The finite element model was programmed to use the same inputs as the Boussinesq models of a homogeneous medium

containing elastic parameters $\lambda = \mu_{-} = 6.2 \times 10^{11} \text{ dynes/cm}^2$ (Lamé constants).

To simulate the Boussinesq boundary conditions, the bottom edge of the finite element structural model was specified as rigid. The load was a symmetrical surface load of water one centimeter in height and five kilometers in length.

The tilt calculated at the load center of the finite element model was 3.85×10^{-10} radians. The three dimensional Boussinesq method produced a load tilt of 2.47 x 10^{-9} radians, and the two dimensional Boussinesq methods produced a load tilt of 3.77×10^{-16} radians.

Because of the consistency with which the finite element model was bracketed by the Boussinesq methods, it is presumed that the finite element program will be a useful tool for detailed analysis of deformations resulting from a variety of loads applied to inhomogeneous structures. In order to have continuity throughout this paper, the bottom edges of remaining finite element models were structurally designed rigid.

III. DEVELOPMENT OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FAULT ZONE TILT, FAULT LOCATION, FAULT SHEAR STRENGTH AND SURFACE LOADS

The response of earth structures to surface loads was explored utilizing the deterministic finite element model. The finite element model simulates the behavior of a discontinuous structure under assymmetric loading. The model structure was matched to the real Earth structure by laterally and vertically varying the known inhomogeneities of The response of the region near a vertical disthe earth. continuity, namely a fault, was of particular interest. The smallest homogeneous elements of the model were assumed to behave elastically for small increments of stress. However, the shear that is distributed in and near the fault zone elements or cells in the finite element grid may have varied considerably due to the contrast in Lamé constants for adjoining elements. The large difference in shear produces steps in the displacement field and therefore poses a problem of smoothness.

Tilt measurements in borehole and observatory sites have been made along the California coastline. Tilt measurements at tidal sensitivities $(10^{-8} \mu \text{ radians})$ show the Earth's surface response to oceanic loading is greater than responses from any other continuous source [13]. Conceivably, ocean loading constitutes a forcing function that can be used to derive the bulk elastic properties of the Earth. However, it has been shown that ocean tidal spectra are non-stationary

in all but lunar frequencies. The lunar semi-diurnal wave (M,) is theoretically 85% of the energy of the total theoretical tidal spectrum [8]. In actuality this is not true. However, the M, line is sufficiently energetic and sufficiently removed from the contaminated tidal spectrum to be used as a stationary forcing function for earth response studies. For these reasons, the model surface load corresponded to the amplitude of the M₂ frequency. A value of fifty-three centimeters for the M, amplitude was chosen to represent the ocean loading in the central and northern California region [14]. In order to remain within the required aspect ratio in each cell of the finite element grid of 10:1 and to account for approximately 95% of the ocean loading effect as calculated by Boussinesq, the length of the load was chosen to be 165 kilometers [8]. With this loading, the investigation was limited to exploring relationships between fault zone tilt, fault shear strength, and the distance from the load to the fault. A factorial arrangement was developed by processing three slightly different velocity structure models having twelve fault locations and four fault shear moduli. The width and depth of the fault zone were set at five and sixteen kilometers respectively. These dimensions conform with Mayer-Rosa's [7] conclusion that the fault zone must be a low velocity zone at least several kilometers wide, extending into the lower crust. The fault zone was shifted consecutively in five kilometer increments from the edge of the load (coastline) to 60 kilometers inland.
This range of distances spans the extent of separation between the San Andreas Fault and the Pacific Ocean throughout most of central and northern California (Fig. 2). At each fault zone location, the shear strength of the fault was varied by adjusting the shear modulus in the fault zone. Starting with values of fault zone shear modulus set equal to adjacent elements, and then in consecutive models reducing the shear modulus in the fault zone one order of magnitude decrements, a maximum difference of four orders of magnitude less of shear strength in the fault zone was achieved.



Location map of U.S. Geological Survey seismograph stations and major faults in central California.

The Lamé constants computed for each cell were derived from studies of the seismic velocity models of Stewart [11] and the works he referenced. Three slightly different velocity structures were developed to observe differences in fault zone tilt response. The Poisson ratio was adjusted from 0.4 at the surface of the model to 0.25 at depths below ten kilometers. The density was derived using a Nafe-Drake curve. The three velocity models are represented by their associated elastic parameters in Table I.

```
TABLE I
```

HARD DEPTH MO		BOTTOM EL	SOFT BOTTOM MODEL		STEWART GABILAN		MODEL DIABLO	
	λ	μ	λ	μ	λ	μ	λ	μ
1 0	0 20	0 12	0 20	0 1 2	0 20	0 1 2		4 5
1.0	0.28	0.12	0.28	0.12	0.28	0.12	1.1	4.5
6.0	2.3	1.5	2.3	1.5	1.6	1.0	2.3	1.5
16.0	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
26.0	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3
41.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5
61.0	6.5	6.5	1.1	0.45	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5

 λ and μ are in units of 10¹¹ dynes/cm². Depths are in units of kilometers.

Tilt was calculated as the maximum positive slope of displacement throughout each fault zone. The phase of tilt in which the displacement gradient is toward the load is taken as positive. By examining the results of the finite element model for these three velocity structures, a relationship between fault zone tilt and the distance from the load to the fault was hypothesized. The calculated tilt in the fault zone was plotted logarithmically against linear distance between the fault zone and the edge of the load (Fig. 3, 4, 5). For distances between 10 and 45 kilometers,



FIGURE 3





FIGURE 4





the tilt measurements lie nearly on a straight line for all three models and fault moduli. Straight lines on semilogarithmic graph paper characterize the relationship as exponential. Equations describing the relationship between fault zone tilt and fault zone location are easily estimated from the graphs. The basic model is shown below, followed by Table II showing the value of each of the parameters for each velocity structure and fault shear strength.

 $T = T_0 e^{-s \cdot d}$ where T = fault zone tilt $T_0 = tilt intercept$ s = slope of straight line d = distance between fault zone andedge of the load (coastline)

TABLE II

	SOFT BOTT	FAULT	HARD BOTT NO FAULT	FAULT	STEWART NO FAULT	T MODEL FAULT
Т _о	8.5x10 ⁻⁸	2.15x10 ⁻⁷	3.9x10 ⁻⁸	8.0x10 ⁻⁸	4.0x10 ⁻⁸	1.1x10 ⁻⁷
S	0.032	0.018	0.073	0.087	0.072	0.094
RANGE	5 < d < !	50 km	10 < d < 5	50 km	10 < d < 4	15 km

Tilt is strongly dependent on the shear modulus of the fault zone. When the shear modulus is decreased in the fault zone one order of magnitude from surrounding material, there is a distinct difference in the resulting tilt as compared with no fault structures. However, decreasing the shear modulus in the fault zone consecutively two, three and four orders of magnitude resulted in a small change of the fault zone tilt. This apparent convergence can best be seen from the table of calculated tilt in the fault zone for the three models (Table III). Plots of the shear modulus (μ) versus

TABLE III

 $1 = 10^{6}$ 47.7 3.90 1.25 0.84 0.54 0.13 .002 ** ī 5 47.6 3.90 1.25 0.84 0.54 0.54 ** ** =10 7 STEWART MODEL æ 47.5 10.6 1.089 1.899 0.83 0.53 0.13 ** =10 Ц თ =103 120000011 ユ FAULT 23.1 3.23 1.73 1.73 0.79 0.79 0.79 0.19 0.13 0.08 0.08 0.08 No 2 42. 9.23 3.258 0.0555 ** 0.01 3.258 ** ** ** 0 = 1 HARD BOTTOM MODEL Ц ω =10 ı, $1 = 10^{9}$ Ħ FAULT 20.8 2.99 1.11 0.76 0.37 0.37 0.18 0.12 0.08 0.08 NO =107 BOTTOM MODEL ц Ø 41.8 112.0 112.0 114.0 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 111.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 11.5 =10 Ц =109 Ц SOFT NO FAULT FAULT ZONE

three velocity 0 F fault zone location each in Table contains tilt calculated structure models

Tilt units (10⁻⁸ radians)

(kilometers) zone to fault load the 0 f edge the is the distance from tilt vector inverted 0 f ault zone Ø Phase ГĻ ×



fault zone tilt for each of the fault zone locations and velocity structures are shown in figures 6, 7, 8.

The dotted line segments of the graphs are the interesting feature. This part of the graph depicts the relationship between a no fault structure and a structure containing a fault zone of shear modulus decreased by one order of magnitude from surrounding material. There appears to be no similarities in this portion of the graphs for different fault zone locations. The dotted line portion of the graphs are flatter at fault zone locations further away from the load. The inference is that the more distant the loads, the less sensitive the response to a local discontinuity. Also, greater depths are required to adequately model distant loads. If the dotted lines in the graph are approximated as straight lines, then an equation relating the shear modulus to fault zone tilt is given by

```
T = A \cdot U^{-n}, where T = fault zone tilt

A = tilt intercept

U = shear modulus of fault zone

n = slope of the straight line.
```

However, further study into particular fault zone locations is required before this equation can be verified.

There are several shortcomings in the modeling which has been presented. First, the soft bottom model is not a realistic representation of the Earth's velocity structure. However, this model does show a sensitivity with which fault zone tilt varies with slight changes in the overall velocity structure. The soft bottom model also unmistakably has the characteristic exponential relationship between fault zone



FIGURE 6





FIGURE 7



28

tilt and fault zone location in the range of 10 to 45 kil-Both the hard bottom model and the Stewart model ometers. are better models of the real Earth's velocity structure [11]. However, because of grid design constraints, the detail of the velocity structure which could be represented was limited, especially in the 0 to 15 kilometer depth range. A plot of the displacement field throughout the structure revealed a final shortcoming of the grid design. The depth used in the present model is too shallow to explore fault zone locations farther than 50 kilometers from the edge of the load. It is apparent from figure 9 that the problem of grid design is directly related to the boundary conditions of the rigid bottom edge. The rigid bottom has the tendency to make the next to bottom layer of the structure oscillate about zero centimeters displacement at distances over 50 kilometers from the load. Also, the ratio of effective distance of the load from a response point to the depth used in the model should not exceed unity. This deduction is demonstrated in figure 9 where the depth of the model structure is 61 kilometers and invalid results occurred beyond the region of 50 to 60 kilometers from the edge of the load.



Figure of Displacement Field in the Hard Bottom Model



IV. MODELS OF FOUR PROFILES OF THE CALIFORNIA COASTLINE

Four profiles of the California coastline were modeled using the finite element technique in an attempt to compare the results with data collected by the United States Geological Survey. However, the results of these investigations point out pitfalls in the modeling phase. The four profiles are pictured in Figure 10. For reasons given below, the only useful profile is profile A. Figure 11 shows the displacement of the surface nodes plotted against distance. Figure 11 also depicts the location of the loading and the location of the fault zone. The upper dotted line results when a fault zone shear modulus is one order of magnitude less than the shear modulus of adjacent surface elements. The lower curve is based on the assumption that no fault zone exists and the elements in the fault zone are therefore identical with those adjacent to the zone at the same depth. The fault zone tilt associated with the no fault structure was 4.18x10⁻⁷ radians whereas the fault zone curve has a calculated tilt of 2.09x10⁻⁵ radians. This tilt was expected from the graphs developed in the previous chapter and is comparable to actual tilt data in the San Francisco Bay area. Figures 12, 13, 14 display the same attributes for profiles B, C, and D as that of Figure 11 of profile A. In profiles B, C, and D the ocean loading was not sufficient in magnitude to accurately model ground movement in these profiles. This resulted in the instabilities

discussed in the previous chapter. At least 165 kilometers or more of ocean loading is required to provide an adequate forcing function for the modeling of all profiles. Zones of 2.5 kilometers in width are probably too small to be realized by the existing grid design. Therefore, fault zones of 2.5 kilometers in width showed little or no change in the displacement field between no-fault and fault structures. Also, as stated in the previous chapter, the grid design is too shallow to place fault zones farther than 50 kilometers from the edge of the load and receive valid information.



FOUR CALIFORNIA PROFILES

FIGURE 10










35

•









V. AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Further study is definitely needed to develop the four California profiles into useable models. Modular construction of the grid is strongly encouraged when alterations are made to add further depth to the grid. Further work is needed to develop an effective and efficient three dimensional finite element computer program and model. This should provide a valuable tool for analyzing more detailed deformations resulting from a variety of loads applied to an inhomogeneous structure. This type of three dimensional finite element model could possibly be used in providing inputs to siloed missiles described in the introduction. Rainfall and barometric fluctuations could be used as the forcing functions to the finite element model instead of ocean tidal loading.



VI. CONCLUSIONS

The finite element model has demonstrated its usefulness in analyzing deformations resulting from a system of loads applied to an earth structure. If the structure is assumed to be of a homogeneous medium, then the finite element model produces results similar to that of Boussinesq models. In analyses of deformations in which the structure consists of an inhomogeneous medium the numerical method of finite elements has shown to be a most valuable asset. A logarithmic relationship between the magnitude of fault zone tilt and the distance of the fault zone from the edge of the load was shown to exist by manipulating the finite element model. Fault zone tilt was also shown to converge in magnitude for a given fault zone location when the fault zone shear modulus was decreased more than one order of magnitude from that of adjoining cells in the finite element grid.

APPENDIX A

DOCUMENTATION OF THE FINITE ELEMENT COMPUTER PROGRAM

The basic idea underlying the finite element concept is to substitute a simpler problem for the actual complex problem. If the simpler problem can be solved and if the resulting solution represents a feasible solution with acceptable accuracy, then the finite element technique has obviously served a useful purpose. The finite element method treats a continuum as an assembly of simple structural components or elements which are connected at a finite number of points, called notes.

The process of fitting a variety of geophysical measurements to the array of possible earth structures and their responses requires a finite element technique. The finite element computer program used in this paper was developed to meet the need for a simple mesh or grid construction allowing for analysis of deformations of axisymmetric and plane strain elastic structures. The program is based on the theory of finite elements as presented by O. C. Ziekiewicz and Y. K. Cheung [15]. Typical finite element programs are so tedious and time consuming in the design of the mesh and indexing of the nodes and cells that they tend to inhibit a thorough investigation of the variety of models that satisfy the geophysical measurements. The finite element program in this paper solves the problems of inversion, non-uniqueness,

and convergence in an efficient and effective manner without becoming overly complex. The program has facilities for processing in one run, several models which the investigator requires for validating his hypotheses.

The computer program is written in Fortran. This facilitates using the program on different systems. The program is composed of a main program and two subroutines, named ASAPS and QPLOT.

The main program constructs the grid, indexes and positions nodes and cells, assigns associated elastic parameters, sets up boundary conditions, and places the vertical surface force in position. The construction of the grid is accomplished by the standardization of five modular mesh types. The mesh types are described as coarse, intermediate, fine, left and right link connectors. The five mesh types are shown in figure 15.

The grid is the hub of the modeling phase. It is constructed by assembling the five mesh types or any combination of mesh types into the desired structure. The dimensions of the grid may vary depending on the number of mesh types used. The grid may be designed so that nodal points are closer spaced by using the fine mesh type in areas where deformations are expected to vary most rapidly. To provide the appropriate transition from a coarse mesh to either an intermediate or fine mesh requires the appropriate right or left link connectors to be inserted. Figure 16 illustrates a completed grid design. The type of grid design which has been discussed

SAMPLE GRID MESH



FIGURE 15A







SAMPLE OF COMPLETED GRID DESIGN



Scaling 0.2" = 1 km 1" = 5 km ----- NA =

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FIGURE 16

above is only valid for plane strain modeling problems. Axisymmetric problems require a different type of grid which has ring-shaped elements with triangular cross sections. Thus for axisymmetric problems a manual grid construction is required and the automatic grid generator in the main program would be aborted. In any grid design the aspect ratio between the lengths of the two legs of the triangular element should not exceed 10:1.

An overlay procedure for elastic boundary conditions was devised so that structures composed of several materials are as easy to model as structures composed of a single material. Each elastic boundary condition is on a separate data card with the coordinates (in inches) which bound that particular set of elastic parameters. The overlay procedure is achieved by giving later specified boundary conditions precedence over former specified boundary conditions. This allows structures to be described by a basic structure which can be easily modified.

The ASAPS subroutine calculates the deformations of axisymmetric and plane-strain elastic structures, using the finite element technique [3]. This program employs the simple triangular element which is constrained to deform homogeneously (for axisymmetric problems the elements are ring-shaped with a triangular cross section). From the mechanical properties and dimensions of each element a stiffness matrix is formed for the entire assembly which relates nodal forces to nodal displacements. The x components and y components of nodal

displacements are the principal unknowns in the analysis and are determined from linear simultaneous equations of the form

 $F_t = \sum_{j=1}^{2N} K_{ij} D_j$ i = 1, 2, ... 2N

where N = number of nodes

$$F_i$$
 = components of force at the nodes; F_i and
 F_{N+i} are the horizontal and vertical com-
ponents of force, respectively, at the ith
node

K_{ii} = stiffness matrix

D_i = nodal displacement components.

Young's overrelaxation method [5] was employed for solution of the equations. This is an iterative method used to improve the rate of convergence. The value of the overrelaxation parameter, W, must be specified with the input data. Because the optimum value of this parameter varies from problem to problem, efficient use of this method requires some experience. This inconvenience, however, is more than offset by the speed of this method and by the small amount of core which is required relative to simple and direct methods of solution. Other methods with comparable speed and storage place bothersome restrictions on the design and labeling of the finite element grid [3].

The subroutine QPLOT is a printer plot routine of the surface node displacements. It searches for the largest negative displacement and adds it to every nodal displacement. The plot then consists of all surface node displacements

plotted as a percent of the largest positive displacement. This was done to give the most clarity of detail possible to the plot. For each point on the plot, its associated surface node number and original displacements as calculated by subroutine ASAPS are printed.

Input Data Preparation

The first fifteen data cards of the data deck are called block array. They contain information about the construction of the grid from the five mesh types. These data cards are always required and always remain in the same position, regardless of the grid design. The following order of input data cards follows the block array data cards.





The above data cards in their proper formats are required to insure that the program will run successfully. The format for each parameter in the input data deck is described below.

Data Cards Supplied by Experimenter

Job Card

Columns 1 2 I2 Format Parameter Model Variables Data Card

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 F5.1
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The input parameters are described as follows:

JOB specifies the total number of models to be processed in one run. IPO print option of which there are eight. The printout is divided into four parts: cell numbers, locations of associated nodes and A elastic parameters. node numbers and location and associated values B of NDISP, DISP. node number and location and associated С displacement. diagram of vertical displacements of surface D nodes. IPO = 1 prints A, B, C, D IPO = 2 prints B, C, DIPO = 3 prints A, only surface nodes B, C, D IPO = 4 prints only surface nodes B, C, D IPO = 6 prints C, DIPO = 7 prints only data associated with surface nodes in C. D IPO = 8 prints D. NBLKS total number of mesh types used in grid design ΝZ total number of elastic boundary conditions incorporated in grid design. total number of surface nodes in grid design. NF code for boundary conditions of the grid: KBND all sides free 0 1 bottom rigid 2 sides rigid 3 bottom and sides rigid. code for plain strain or axisymmetric type of IGEOM problem: plain strain problem and stress strain 1 calculations in ASAPS will be bypassed. axisymmetric problem and stress strain 2 calculations will be accomplished in ASAPS number of iterations taken for solution of ITERAT

simultaneous equations.



- W overrelaxation parameter used to reduce solution time and speed convergence. Value should be between 1.6 and 1.7.
- NA exponent of ten used as scale factor for nodal coordinates.
- NB exponent of ten used as scale factor for surface nodal forces.
- NC exponent of ten used as scale factor for nodal displacement (zero if cm. is required and cgs units are used for NA and NB)
- ND exponent of ten used as scale factor for elastic parameters (Lame's constants). If elastic parameters are loaded in exponental form, then ND = 0.
- NBLK subscripted variable containing coded quantity: of the grid design by mesh type.
 - 1 course
 - 2 left link connector
 - 3 intermediate
 - 4 fine
 - 5 right link connector
- YZ1 Y coordinate of top left hand corner of boundary condition (in grid coordinates, i.e., inches)
- YZ2 Y coordinate of bottom left hand corner of boundary condition (in grid coordinates, i.e., inches)
- XZ1 X coordinate of top right hand corner of boundary condition (usually zero and also in grid coordinates, i.e., inches)
- XZ2 X coordinate of top right hand corner of boundary condition (in grid coordinates, i.e., inches).
- UZ1 Lamé constant Lamda (λ) coefficient of elasticity.
- UZ2 Lamé constant Mu (μ) coefficient of elasticity.
- FY(I) normal force at each of the surface nodes.

Example calculation for solving Lame's constants given a velocity structure:

Find λ and μ for the sample velocity structure in the zone where $v_p = 6.0$ km/sec assuming Poisson ratio of .25. Poisson ratio $\sigma = \frac{\lambda}{2(\lambda + \mu)}$ (1) Velocity for elastic waves $(1 \text{ or } p + (\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho})^{1/2})$ (2) where ρ = density and is obtained from the Nafe-Drake curve which displays the variation of density with P wave velocity.

. For $v_p = 6.0 \text{ km/sec}$ $\rho = 2.75 \text{ g/cm}^3$

Now, solving equations 1 and 2 above simultaneously for λ and μ .

		<u>Equation I</u>				Equation 2					
		.25	=	$\frac{\lambda}{2(\lambda+\mu)}$			6	x	105	=	$\left(\frac{\lambda+2\mu}{2.75}\right)^{1/2}$
		.5	=	$\frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}$			6	x	10 ⁵	=	$\left(\frac{3\lambda}{2.75}\right)^{1/2}$
5λ	+	.5µ	=	λ					λ	=	3.3 x 10 ¹¹
		λ	=	λ					μ	=	3.3 x 10^{11} dynes/cm ²

ANS.



Example calculation for determining scale factor (NB) and normal surface forces (FY) given the amplitude of the M, frequency of third tidal spectrum.

Find FY(I), given $M_2 = 50$ centimeters?



Force = $4.9 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10^{\circ} = 49 \times 10^{\circ}$ dynes at each interior n NB = 9.

Nodes located at edges of load should be loaded with half as much force, to simulate a uniform load.

Derivation of NA for coordinate system in kilometers:

Let smallest mesh distance (.2 inches) equal 1 km.

Then .2 inches = 1 km = 1 x 10⁵ cm .5 inches = 2.5 km = 2.5 x 10⁵ cm. 1 inch = 5 km = 5 x 10⁵ cm

therefore NA = 5.
Core Requirements

Core requirements obviously depend upon the size of the grid (i.e., the total number of cells and nodes). Variables O, P, Q, XC, YC, AREN, ELAM, and EMU are subscripted in common with the total number of cells in the grid. Variables XF, YF, FX, FY, MID, LID, and LIDS are subscripted in common with the total number of nodes in the grid. Finally, variables A, AR, B, MAP, NDISP, and DISP are subscripted in common with twice the total number of nodes in the grid. A program with 744 cells and 419 nodes required 280 K bits of core on an IBM 360-67 computer. This was a very large grid spanning 74 modeling inches. For most grids of 500 cells or less, 200 K bits of core would be sufficient to run the program, on an IBM 360-67 computer. Of course, core requirements will differ from system to system. The above mentioned core requirements are meant to be a guide.

Time Requirements

The time required to run the finite element computer program is a function of the grid size, the number of iterations required to obtain a convergent solution and the amount of printout required. An IBM 360-67 computer required approximately fifteen minutes to process a 744 cell, 74 inch model grid using 1,000 iterations and a complete printout (IPO = 1). This time may be considerably reduced if only information about the surface displacements is required. Using IPO = 8 on the same grid and 1,000 iterations only eight minutes was

required to run the program. Again, if IPO = 8 is used on the same grid and only 300 iterations are required the program ran in four minutes. Of course, time requirements will differ depending on the system and the overhead required. The above mentioned time requirements are meant as a guide.

Internal Forces

Internal forces can be processed by this finite element computer program in conjunction with surface loads or instead of surface loads. However, each internal node force must be loaded manually into the program by inserting the appropriate instruction in the main program. The calculation of the size of the nodal force is the same as if it were a surface force. The sign of the force specified determines force direction. Positive force is a downward force and a negative force is an upward force. The internal force at node I should be loaded in the following format,

 $FY(I) = (\pm)(force size) * 10.**$ NB The internal force statements should be inserted between statement numbers FETO3590 and FETO3600 in the main program. If only internal forces are desired, blank data cards should be used in the input section for surface loads in the data deck.

Cutout Procedure

A problem faced by the experimenter is determination of a number of iterations sufficient to be assured that the solution has converged. This must be specified in the input data ITERAT. A number which far exceeds the point of

convergence wastes computer time and money. Therefore, in subroutine ASAPS variable CUT is specified in statement number FETO4700. It is now arbitrarily set at 0.000001. CUT is compared with the percentage difference that some surface node has displaced in 25 iterations. Thus CUT is a percentage beyond which the experimenter feels the solution has converged and wishes to terminate the procedure. The surface node used for the comparison should be located either under the load system or in a zone where a large amount of deformation is expected to take place. The node number is determined by variable MIS specified in statement number FETO4680 in the ASAPS subroutine. However, if the experimenter knows how many iterations are required and specifies that number in the input data, he may desire to by-pass the cutout procedure. This is accomplished by changing statement number FETO6860 in ASAPS

from 901 IF(PERC.LE.CUT) GO TO 902

to 901 IF(PERC.LE.CUT) GO TO 104.

Definitions of Non-Input Variables

DISP(I) displacement in x-direction of node I (cgs units)
DISP(I+NODE) displacement in y-direction of node I
FX(I) horizontal force at node I
NCELL total number of cells in grid
NDISP(I) = 1 displacement is set at 0.1, i.e., node I is rigid in x-direction
= 0 displacement is unspecified at node I in x-direction
NDISP(I+NODE) same as NDISP(I) except in y-direction
NODE total number of nodal points in grid
O(I) node number of uppermost left node in cell I
P(I) clockwise node number from O(I) in cell I
Q(I) clockwise node number from P(I) in cell I
XF(I) x coordinate of node I
YF(I) y coordinate of node I
AREN(I) area of cell I
IBL(I) the node number beginning layer I of the grid (fine and intermediate have 9 layers course has 7 layers)
IEL(I) the node number that ends layer I of the grid

CUT percentage change in the distance that some surface node (determined by MIS) moves in 25 iterations. (See cutout procedure)

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ш POSSIBL S + J=NODES K=1-8 Z CCMMON d(750); P(750); P(750); P(750); P(750); P(250); 9X, 6HY-COMP, 9X, 7HX-COORD, 8X, • FOR AXISYMMETRIC* PROBLEMS *********** • • • J= [- 7 ¥ INITE ELEMENT METHOD AND PLANE-STRAIN *********************** . -NODE HIIM FINITEF ELLS Ō * × IDS(I,J) = ALL* * * 1110 F 831 F ŝ ເດີເກີເດ 00000 0000



8 . NODE S NODE, I31 PAIR I, L...L=MID(I, J), K=1-2 01 , I3, 2X, 20HADJACENT WRITE(6,850) DN,(MID(DN,K),K=2,8,1),QN STOP OHERROR IN DATA, NODE ,13,2X,20HADJACEN 10 ADJACENT NODE) LID(I: J.K)=CELLS WITH NODE PAIR I.L.. CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE F(IC.EG0.2) JT=DN F(IC.EC.ECS ADJACENT TO FHE NOD FF(MID.CON .J)=FO F(MID.CON .J)=FO F(MID.CO , NODE . FORMAT(2X,20H MID(ON,J)=QN J=J+1 0TEMP=GN ON=PN PN=QN CN=DTEMP CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE CONTINUE 60 5 66 74 50 ω S 64 61 62 67 5 Ó 9 666 ထဲထဲသ ∞ $\overline{00}$



DO 71 J=2,8,1 LTEMP=MID(1,) DF (LTEMP=E0.0)GO TO 70 KTEMP=LIDS(1,K) IF (KTEMP) ON=D(KTEMP) CN=P(KTEMP) CN=Q(KTEMP) CN=Q(KTEMP)	<pre>M=1 IF(LID(I,J,M).NE.0) M=2 IF(DN.EQ.LTEMP.OR.PN.EQ.LTEMP.OR.QN.EQ.LTEMP)LID(I,J,M)=KTEM ? CONTINUE ? CONTINUE</pre>	70 CONTINUE LET A(I,J)=0,MAP(I,J)=0,B(I)=0 CO 77 I = 1, I7, I DO 78 J = 1, I6, I A(I,J)=0.	RAP(I, J)=0 8 CONTINUE 8(I)=0.	7 CONTINUE ITERATION ON I=NCELL IS TO FORM YC(),XC() DO 85 I = 1, NCELL, 1 ON=O(I) PN=P(I)	$\begin{array}{c} 2N = 0 \\ \forall C \\ \forall C \\ \exists 1 \\ \exists 2 \\ \exists 2 \\ \exists 2 \\ \exists 2 \\ \exists 3 \\ \exists 4 \\ \exists 2 \\ \exists 3 \\ \exists 4 \\ \exists 5 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\$	AREN(I)=.5*(XC(I,I)*YC(I,3)-XC(I,3)*YC(I,1)) 35 CONTINUE	* FORM STIFENESS MATRIX * FORM STIFENESS MATRIX ************************	DO 90 I=1,NODE,1 . IV=NODE+I	00 91 JA=1,8,1 J=MID(I,JA) JB=JA+8	LD=0 50 92 KA=1,7,1	LV=LV+1 IF(I`EQ.J) GO TO 94
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IF(LD.GT.2) GD TO 92 K=LID(I,JA,KA) GU TO 95 K=LIDS(I,KA) K=LIDS(I,KA)	ARFA=ABS(AREN(K)) ARFA=ABS(AREN(K)) ARFA=ABS(AREN(K)) ARFA=ABS(AREN(K)) DD 97 IL=1,2,1 F(G(K) EQ.IH) DF(G(K) EQ.IH) KJ=1 F(G(K) EQ.IH) KJ=2 IF(Q(K) EQ.IH) KJ=2 YJ=YC(K,KJ) XJ=XC(K,KJ) XJ=XC(K,KJ) F(IL EQ.2) IF(IL EQ.2) GD 70 97	<pre>XI = XJ YI = YJ AT = YJ AT = (2.**Y1*YJ*(.5* ELAM(K) + EMU(K))+X1*XJ* EMU(K)) AT = (2.**I*YJ* ELAM(K)+X1*YJ* EMU(K))/(4.*AREA) AT = (Y1*YJ* ELAM(K)+Y1*XJ* EMU(K))/(4.*AREA) AT = (2.*X1*XJ*(.5* ELAM(K)) + EMU(K))+Y1*YJ* EMU(K)) IF(IG ECM.EQ.I) GO TO 93</pre>	ADDITIONS TO MATRIX FOR AXI-SYMMETRIC	<pre>ON=G(K) PN=P(K) PN=P(K) CN=Q(K) CN=Q(K) XAV=(X(DN)+X(PN)+X(QN))/3. XAV=(X(CN)+X(PN)+X(QN))/3. AT1=(AT1*3.1416*2.*XAV)+ (4.*3.1416*AREA/(9.*XAV))*(1 .5*ELAM(K))+((AREA*3.1416*ELAM(K))*(Y1+YJ))/(3.*ARE AT2=(AT2*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XJ)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*AREA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*4REA*ELAM(K)*XI)/(3. AT3=(AT3*3.1416*2.*XAV)+(3.1416*2)</pre>	AT4=AT4*3。1410*2。*XAV A(I,JA)=A(I,JA)+AT1 A(I,JB)=A(I,JB)+AT2 A(IV,JA)=A(IV,JA)+AT3	A(IV,JB)=A(IV,JB)+A14 CONTINUE MAP(I,JA)=J	MAP(I, JB)=J+NOOR MAP(IV, JA)=J MAP(IV, JB)=J+NODE CCNTINUE CONTINUE
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)-TEMP)/AR(I))*W+((1.-W)*DISP(I))*10.**NC .1.0E07) G0 T0 825 S))**2+(DISP(MIDD))**2)
DIST(M))**2)/DIST(M-1) 001),M DISP(MIS))**2+(DISP(MIDD))**2) 5.AND.L.LE.49)GO TO 104 M=0 D0 104 L=1,ITERAT,1 D0 105 I=1;IT,1 D0 105 I=1;IT,1 D0 105 J=1;I5,1 D0 106 J=1;I6,1 D0 106 J=1;I6,1 D0 106 J=1;I6,1 JF(MP=0 JF(NDFP(I,J);EQ.MAP(I,J)),GO T0 106 JF(DISP(I))=((B(I)-TEMP)/AR(I)),WH D1SP(I))=((B(I)-TEMP)/AR(I)),WH C1SP(I))=((B(I)-TEMP)/AR(I)),WH D1SP(I))=((B(I)-TEMP)/AR(I)),WH D1ST(M)=SQRT((DISP(MIS)),SCT0 10 TTL=25%ITL ITL=25%ITL ITL=25%ITL ITL=25%ITL ITL=25%ITL ITL=25%ITL D1ST(M)=SQRT((DISP(MIS)),WF)),SCT0 10 D1ST(M-1)=D1ST(M)),MF)),SCT0 10 D1ST(M-1)=D1ST(M)),MF)),SCT(M)),SC D1ST(M)=SQRT((DISP(MIS)),SC2+(D D1ST(M))=SQRT((DISP(MIS)),SC2+(D D1ST(M))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(M))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(M))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(M))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(M))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(MISP(MIS)),SC2+(D D1ST(MIS))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(MIS))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(MIS))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(MIS))=SQRT(MIS),SC2+(D D1ST(MIS))=SQRT(MIS),SC2 T0 103 EQUATIONS SOLUTION 00 FOR SIMULTANEOUS ([[,1]]) D0 100 1=1, NGDE, 1 IV=NDDE+1 B(I)=FX(I) B(IV)=FY(I) CCNTINUE ARRANGE MATRIX FO ARRANGE MATRIX FO CONTINUE 1 (1, EQ.MAP(1, J) CONTINUE AR(I)=A(1, J) w SOLVE 901 104 74 00 105 23-106 000 906 -9 ഹ \sim 0 C 000------


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VP=DI SP(PE) VQ=DI SP(QE) EX=(U0*YC(I,1)+UP*YC(I,2)+UQ*YC(I,3))/(2.*AREN(I)) EY=(V0*XC(I,1)+VP*XC(I,2)+VQ*XC(I,3))/(2.*AREN(I)) EXY=(U0*XC(I,1)+UP*XC(I,2)+UQ*XC(I,3)+VO*YC(I,1)+VP*YC(I,2)+VQ*YC(I,3))/(4.*AREN(I)) AE=EX-EY AE=EX-EY	BEEEX+EY AEP=ABS(AE) IF(AEP+LT+000001) GO TO 201 EBETA=ATAN((2+*EXY)/AE)/2.	BBETA= 3.14159/4. EGAM=EBETA+3.14159/2. ECAM=EBET2=)*14159/2. EP1=(BE/2.)*(AE/2.)*COS(2.*EBETA)+EXY*SIN(2.*EBETA) EP2=(BE/2.)+(AE/2.)*COS(2.*EGAM)+EXY*SIN(2.*EGAM) IF(EP1.LT.EP2) GO TO 203 IF(EP1.LT.EP2) GO TO 203 EMAX=EP1	EAIN=EP2 THETAI=EBETA THETA2=EGAM EAAX=EP2 EMAX=EP2	THETALEEGAM THETALEEBETA THETALETHETA!*57.2958 THETALETHETA?*57.2958	DELV=(EMAX+EMIN)/2. SIGMAX=2.*EMU(I)*EMAX+ELAM(I)*2.*DELV SIGMIN=2.*EMU(I)*EMAN+ELAM(I)*2.*DELV PRESS=(SIGMAX+SIGMIN)/2. SHEAR=(SIGMAX+SIGMIN)/2.	HUOPS=0. IF(IGEOM.EQ.1) GO TO 205 DE=DE-NODE PE=PE-NODE	QE=QE-NUDE HOOPE=(UO+UP+UQ)/(X(OE)+X(PE)+X(QE)) DELV=(HOOPE+EMAX+EMIN)/3 SIGMAX=2.*EMU(I)*EMA(I)*3.*DELV SIGMIN=2.*EMU(I)*EMA(I)*3.*DELV	HKESSETSIGMAX *SIGMIN*HUUPS//3. HOOPSE2.*EMU(I)*HOOPE+ELAM(I)*3.*DELV IF(HOOPS.LT.SIGMAX.AND.HOOPS.GT.SIGMIN) SHEAR=(SIGMAX-SIGMIN)/2. IF(HOOPS.GT.SIGMAX) SHEAR=(HOOPS-SIGMIN)/2.	IF (HUGPS.L).SIGMIN) SHEAR=(SIGMAX-HOOPS)/2. WRITE(6,214)I.SIGMAX,SIGMIN,EMAX,EMIN,THETAI,THETA2,HOOPS,HOOPE, Shear,press
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